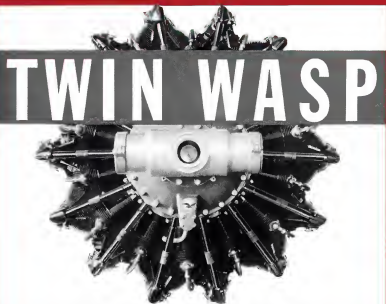


AVIATION

The Oldest American Aeronautical Magazine



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The New
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CONDOR



A NEW STANDARD
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The new Curtiss-Wright Condors, recently placed in service on Eastern Air Transport and American Airways, are an advanced type of high-speed transport. Their payload normally consists of 1200 lbs.,—15 passengers, 450 lbs. of baggage and 200 lbs. of mail. The planes have a cruising speed of 150 m.p.h., a high speed of 170 m.p.h. and a landing speed of 45 m.p.h. They are powered by two 700 H. P. Wright Cyclones, and can fly and climb on one engine.

Passenger comfort and convenience have been achieved to a remarkable degree. The cabin is as quiet as a Pullman—the result of a year's research by the acoustic engineers of the Sperry Gyroscope

Company. The passenger aisle is exceptionally wide, and the cabin high enough so that it is not necessary to stoop while walking through the aisle. The planes are upholstered for maximum passenger comfort and are designed to permit easy conversation among passengers. Large windows provide unobstructed vision.

Curtiss-Wright designed this plane for the specific purpose of giving air transport operators a multi-engine ship having as high a cruising speed as is consistent with a safe landing speed. From the standpoint of economy, the new Condor has the lowest operating cost, per seat-mile, of any multi-engine transport now in service operation.

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The equipment of air forces

FRANCE (PART ONE): PURSUIT AND OBSERVATION

By John Jay Lde

IT IS a fascinating task to review the history of the development of the material utilized in French aerial warfare since the Armistice. However, this is by no means a simple task, if only on account of the vast numbers of prototypes which have appeared during the past fourteen years. The material inventive genius of the French has found full play in producing original designs. The result has been that, in the case of the present class alone, one may readily compile a list of over 10 different types produced since the Armistice, excluding all variations on the more these such as alterations, power plants, and more modifications of the original model.

It must be evident, of course, that during the same period the actual number of different present types which have gone into quantity production has not exceeded a dozen and it is with these that we are chiefly concerned here.

New planes are sought

The system employed in France with regard to procurement practice is intended to encourage the creation of new types and has inevitably resulted in the organization of a number of small factories with moderate resources alongside powerful industrial organizations. Whereas in England several firms have built military airplanes in "pocket factories" without having received orders from the Air Ministry (see Major Stewart's article in *AVIATION* for

December), this bold method is virtually unknown in France. In France the lead and set comparison of the Air Force largely the actual Technical Service with the performance and general technical requirements necessary for their method. The Technical Service draws up general programs for aircraft designed to satisfy the equipment required by the various services. These programs are distributed broadcast to all aircraft builders who might be interested.

Each manufacturer establishes a preliminary "drawing" which is submitted to the Service Bureau of the Technical Service and later to the Commission of Examination of Designs of New Aircraft, the product of which is the "Cahier," the general technical dossier of the Air Ministry. The manufacturer is accompanied by his engineers to defend the design, appears before the commission which may accept the design as capable of realization, may defer action pending the submission of additional drawings, or may definitely reject it.

In the event that the design is accepted, the prototype, after acceptance as to price, is ordered by the General Contract Commission, which has on its board representatives both of the Technical and of the Production Services.

A complex testing system

After the contract has been signed the Technical Service controls the construction of the prototype through

the inspector of the Production Service assigned to the plant. The prototype completed, it is tested by the Flight Section of the Technical Service at Villacoublay (not inside of Paris) and judged by two commissions. The first is the Commission for the Acceptance of Prototype Aircraft, which comes upon the results obtained by the Flight Section as to the exact performance, engine of stability, maneuverability, etc. In our tests reveal inadequate performance in some pronounced defect the machine is returned to the engineer or assigned to the testing of equipment or other work.

In the event that the airplane fulfills all tests satisfactorily, it is judged by the Commission for the Acceptance of Prototype Aircraft, which studies the performance of the machine and gives it a numerical value so that it may be compared in relation to the other entries in the competition.

The tests are not yet over, as before it is placed in production, the airplane must pass the commission board of members of the various services, including "Group of New Aircraft," which has its headquarters at Villacoublay but distinct from the Flight Section of the Technical Service.

The various steps outlined above for the testing system apply as well to airplanes, except that in the latter class the various tests are conducted at St. Raphael instead of at Villacoublay.

If the aircraft is accepted for produc-

spans are of steel and the ribs of duralumin. The wing is supported on each side by a pair of struts forming an X; the area of which is at the lower forepart of the fuselage. One of the best features of this machine is the great depth (over 5 ft.) and weakness of the observer's cockpit. Both the fuselage and wing are covered with inflated duralumin sheet. With an empty weight of 670 lb. less than the Breguet 27, and 350 lb. more useful load, the performance is drastically better in most respects.

Long-distance observation

The above machines (as equipped for observation) are designed for use as "Circus 2-Armist" types (equivalent to Corps Observation in our Army Air Corps) and by the projection must have a range of 240 miles at 140 m.p.h. at 11,500 ft.; cruising at least 72 gal. of fuel.

The useful load may be increased by 1,200 lb. to allow the machines to be loaded as light bombers carrying two bombs of 440 lb. and ten of 22 lb.

The three machines do not solve the problem of long-distance (single) reconnaissance, and the solution of converting the Breguet 19 into a three-seater (Type 25) not appealing to the authorities, a competitor has been taking shape ever since the summer of 1931 (with an final decision in 1932). For two-seater observation are shown, emphasizing good performance, long range, lighting, cameras, and complete equipment. Seven competitors entered the trials, all equipped with

rockets; its entry may be disregarded.

In view of the fairly high speeds, special cameras have been made to protect the rear camera from the wind blast. Several different methods are under experiment. In the Latécoere 1000 is a telescopic windshield devised into sections and sliding horizontally over the cockpit. In the Marconi, a small windshield is used in connection with an adjustable flap on the wing which deflects the air stream over the camera's lens. In the Nieuport the camera has a windshield which is partially retractable, being composed of three overlapping sections. The project was a third vertical windshield with side panels, as in the Type 27.

The increased area of the lower rear cockpit characteristic of the Breguet has been altered in the Potez by similar means, a conical duralumin frame carrying the tail being added to the main portion of the fuselage. To facilitate inspection and repair, each wing of the Potez is composed of five separate parts, assembled by external steel angles. The interior of the wing

may readily be examined by quickly removable panels in the lower surface.

The Marconi 111 is considered a fairly superior of the competitors, and the firm has received a small production order. Although its speed at sea-level is slightly lower than that of the Latécoere 1001, its observations at the working altitude of 14,000 ft. are more satisfactory, due to its greater wing index (330 sq. against 200 sq. ft.). The two spars of the Marconi are lightened I-beams interconnected by Warren girder cross-pieces, forming boxes instead of the usual ribs. The cockpit wing covering is riveted to the spars and to several chorded struts, forming panels with them. The leading edge is detachable.

The fuselage is composed of angle-section longitudinal frames, by channel-section transverse frames, the whole covered with duralumin sheet. The cross-section, chosen with special reference to make downward, has proved surprisingly good; it is trapezoidal (with the smaller base below) with rounded top and fuselage and flat sides.

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Left: Interior view about front to the Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft after a light started fire for only 11 hours at Maré. In the right one of them is mounted the Potez "Observer" type.



Right: Forward view of the two from without the Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft after 200-hp. Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft.



Left: From 1932 to 1933 the Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft was in use. Right: The 1932 Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft was a new variety of aerial reconnaissance. The engine is the Breguet 19, 200-hp. developing 215 hp. at 1,500 ft.



Above: Superior machine, and a third landing gear, are among the outstanding characteristics of the 1933 Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft.

Left: A partially retractable windshield is used to protect the camera in the rear cockpit of the Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft.

Right: Withdrawing the tail of the Breguet 19 "Observer" type aircraft was not necessary from 1932 to 1933. It was only the 1933 Breguet 19.

the 650 hp. direct drive Hispano-Suiza engine; the Breguet 25, a slightly enlarged version of the Type 27, later came 94, Marconi 111, Nieuport 858, Potez 27, S.E.C.M. 130 (later with driver) and Weymann 80. Except for the Weymann, all the competitors are not only built of metal but have duralumin wing covering (the Weymann having a welded-steel-tube fuselage and duralumin covering). With the exception of the Weymann biplane and the S.E.C.M. triplane, they are all high-wing monoplane. As Weymann is now



French fighters

PURSUIT AND OBSERVATION



Left: One of the 1933 type of 1933 pursuit aircraft—the Breguet 19 "Observer" type.

Shower, the long sought quality of cabin comfort, is not attained by the control of any single factor in design, but can be achieved only by the careful individual consideration of each contributing cause of sound transmission from without. A single small leak may destroy the benefits derived from many hours of research, and ventilation and heating systems are frequent sources of leakage. Extensive results have been attained, however, through painstaking attention to every detail.

Quiet within the airplane

By Stephen J. Zand

Sperry Gyroscope Company

THERE are still a great number of people in the aeronautical industry who think that relatively quiet airplane cabins are either a divine or, if they become a reality, will be the result of the application of some single magical yet-to-be-discovered, sound-shaking material. The idea that such substances would be, as already had been discovered, has led many designers to use in their airplane a variety of sound deadening materials without due regard to the known and widely published fundamentals of acoustics. They have been too busy in developing systems for more speed and power payed that some of them have forgotten that revenue from airplanes is obtained from transporting a human cargo which is entitled to a reasonable amount of comfort. As tested at a noise level at a louder level, an aircraft how much more it may move its ear, allowing, and a serious trade of some stimulation is required to obtain a reasonable amount of comfort. As tested at a noise level at a louder level, an aircraft how much more it may move its ear, allowing, and a serious trade of some stimulation is required to obtain a reasonable amount of comfort.

The first step in engineering any engineering problem is a determination of all available data and a program for securing the necessary additional facts. These are presently secured through some form of engineering measurement. The reduction of measuring with a generally presupposed, but only rarely has, an attempt has made to create a unit, which serves to express loudness. This unit is the bel, which is defined as one-tenth of a decibel. (For a detailed description and history of this unit, see "The Decibel" by the author in *Aviation Engineering*, February 1933, page 18.)

A decibel is, roughly, the measure of an increase in sound just noticeable

to the ear or an increase. The faintest sound which can be heard under the threshold of hearing may be called 1 decibel above the threshold of hearing. The range from the threshold up to a noise as loud as to be scarcely painful can be covered by about 120 steps, or 120 decibels. This noise possible a scale of sound levels from 0 to 120, with which the airplane designer should be familiar, as all means may be used approximately on this scale. The airplane noise problem starts at the very top of the scale, since the combined noise of an airplane propeller and unshielded engine at a distance of approximately 5 ft. is about 130 to 150 decibels, and is nearly at the painful point in the unperceived ear.

Put in perspective, the different noise levels in transportation and their

relative influence upon the action necessary to be able to converse.

As the decibel is the unit of measure of such an involved phenomenon as sound, let us now give some fundamentals of this unit.

1. The decibel is a ratio of two intensities or powers. If P_2 is the input and P_1 is the output, then $\frac{P_2}{P_1} = 10^{\frac{dB}{10}}$ or $n = 10 \frac{dB}{10}$ in dB.
2. The relation between actual sound energy and the loudness sensation as expressed by decibels is logarithmic.
3. An increase or decrease of approximately 25 per cent in the energy of the sound is necessary to make a noticeable difference of 1 decibel.
4. A change of sound energy of 100

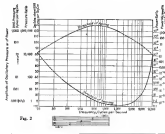


Fig. 2

times is necessary to make a loudness change of only 20 decibels.

5. If an airplane engine takes a noise equal to 100 decibels, two such engines make a noise equal to only 100 decibels.
6. But if we want to reduce the noise of these two engines to a 10-decibel level in the cabin, we must reduce the sound energy in the cabin to 1/10,000 of what it is outside the cabin.
7. Whereas the intensity of a sound is increased 100 per cent, it is increased 3 decibels above its previous value. Conversely, when the intensity of a sound is reduced 1 decibel, it is reduced 30 per cent.
8. Whereas the pressure of a sound wave is doubled, it is increased 6 decibels. Conversely, whatever pressure of a sound wave is reduced 4 decibels it is reduced 50 per cent.

Fig. 2 shows the range of auditory sensation for the average human ear. From this diagram may also be seen the different relations of the decibel scale to pressure or electrical power. Obviously, it may be emphasized that when the threshold is specified, absolute expressions in decibels, being a ratio, have no significance whatever. For the time being, as may be, four decibels are being used by different observers. In our work we have used $P_2 = 60$ dynes per sq. cm., or 1 millibar. Corrections are easily applied for different threshold values. Referring further to Fig. 2, we see that the human ear is most sensitive in the range of 2,000 cycles per second and less sensitive as we approach the lower and higher limits of audibility. The energy content of a very low or very high note must be great greater than that of

The range within which the human ear works and the relative effects of various noises

other proper and will thus be transmitted through the following parts: walls, ceiling, floor, windows, head and rear bulkheads, doors, ventilation, heaters, structural members from 1 to 3, inasmuch, the entire aircraft structure is a sound source of any sort communicating directly with the outside, reflecting windows, etc. This carry-over is less reduced the cabin proper, will be either partly reflected or partly absorbed by rubber, walls, floor and chairs.

We obtain here: "If we could only get a good muffler on our airplane we would get a noiseless cabin." This is an utterly wrong and yet so common that we shall make an attempt to explain this clearly by means of an example.

Assume an airplane engine plant giving a noise level of 132 decibels. About 35 per cent of the noise is from the unshielded exhaust, 65 per cent from the propeller, and 20 per cent from the various proper-motion, gear, engine, maintenance, etc. In terms of loudness, or decibels, it will be:

Exhaust	35.0
Propeller	65.0
Other	10.0
Total	110.0

The exhaust, being the loudest of these noises, masks the others and shields can consequently be so constructed as to attenuate and much noise can be reflected. A good muffler will reduce the exhaust to 60 decibels, bringing it down to 60 decibels. The whole noise constant to over at 100 decibels, except that now the propeller, being the loudest, the loudest of the remaining noise. To reduce propeller noise to the point must be reduced. A reduction of 100 ft. per second will give, according to D'Arson, an such as 11 decibels reduction in noise level. Hence, our improved muffler engine will have:

Exhaust reduced	35.0
Propeller reduced	55.0
Other	10.0
Total	100.0

From 132 decibels to 100 decibels, only 7 decibels reduction for all that effort. This is decreasing, but 2 points by figures just what is being shown by experience, that the solution of quiet air travel does not lie in silencing

European operators advertise their

Art in air

IN EUROPE most transportation is sold through travel agencies. Even railroad tickets are commonly bought there instead of at the station. The agencies are copiously decked with posters advertising all sorts of trips and travel devices, and the airlines have quickly pushed themselves into a leading position in the application of art to advertising. Unfortunately the black-and-white repro-



The Union Jack reproduced in its own colors better the better face of the white in Imperial Airways' poster.

Garish reds, yellows, greens and purples call the eye to the Farman poster.



In the rich colors of Imperial's K. L. M. poster its transport agent the speed of the Flying Dutchman.

air services in poster of many colors

travel sales

ductions on these pages cannot do justice to the originals with their delicate pastel blues and pinks and flaming reds and yellows, but they give some indication of the boldness and pertinence of the design. Though American conditions are quite different, such posters could often be displayed to great advantage here. Air transport executives and traffic managers, please note.



Aeropostale combines the boldness of a modern record-breaking contest into gold.



In bright orange Luft Hansa's legend and the limited colors of the advertised route record a yellow plane against a dark green ground.

Air-Celco also improves the difficult legend in color. Dominant red lines mark and white.



EDITORIALS

AVIATION

EDWARD F. WATNES, Editor

The New Deal
and the air mail

GRAND EVENTS happened in Washington. With the change of administration, a fundamental change of air mail policy has become inevitable. It has been evident for many months that both houses of Congress are profoundly dissatisfied with the present arrangement. Even where there is no urge to make drastic reduction in the air mail appropriation, and on the whole the House of Representatives has been disposed to be generous in that respect, the manner of dispensing the money has come under continuous challenge.

That explains no criticism of the air mail operators, nor of anybody. The manner on change goes far beyond personalities. It grows out of the teachings of experience, and of the change in economic conditions, and of a determination that the air mail shall be organized on a basis that will positively assure efficient self-support. The result is the Kelly bill, introduced near the end of the last Congress and reintroduced in the present one. Though the bill leaves the issue of the ranking minority member of the House Committee on Postal Affairs. It appears from recent reports to have the backing of a majority of the committee. It assumes a corresponding importance.

OF the numerous alternative approaches to the question, the new bill has chosen two and hybridized them. It proposes basic compensation by fixed formula, the same for all operations, payments to be based exclusively upon the amount of service rendered. Then it modifies the acceptance of a sudden change to that purely economic policy by introducing a pure subsidy, to be arbitrarily appropriated to air mail contractors after an examination of their accounts during a transitional period.

Whether through the Kelly bill or something quite different, it seems safe to assume that we shall soon see the end of the complex, mathematical rules, semi-

annually revised and always influenced by the tense interplay of conflicting forces, which have marked the administration of the Watson Act since 1930. Whatever is done now will be a good deal simpler than the practice of the past, but it need not necessarily be as simple as the Kelly bill in its present form.

Over-simplification seems to be in the proposal that payment of two-thirds of a cost per pound-mile, supplemented by the limited subsidy grants already mentioned. It would be more positive and clearer, and it would also release the Post Office Department of a responsibility for the arbitrary allocation of public funds which no official of an executive department ought to bear, if the flat-payment basis were to be replaced by one on a sliding scale that would make the extra grants entirely unnecessary. Such a change, too, would remove any direct connection between the rate of payment and the net income of the contractor, and it would reduce the over-shadowing importance of the government audit of the contractors' accounts. The fixing of government compensation for supplies or services by its ability to determine the cost proved entirely unsatisfactory during the last war. It is no better in time of peace.

Another feature of the bill that causes some justifiable alarm is the clause that would limit the maximum payment in any event to 50 cents per mile flown. Under the proposed rule there will be no added payment for handling anything above 250 lb of mail. Anything beyond that level might properly be set at a very low unit rate, perhaps as low as 1/20 cent per pound-mile, but the consequences of imposing an absolute maximum limit will be most unfortunate.

WITH a change from the often-shuffled formulas of the Watson Act definitely in prospect, it becomes possible to do for American airlines what has been done for a number of European lines during the past ten years. It becomes possible to draw up long-term contracts, providing for the payment of compensation at a unitary flat rate or in accordance with a formula which will remain constant throughout the life of the contract. It is of the utmost importance that it should be possible to enter into positively fixed ar-

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rangements covering a period of at least eight or ten years, permitting a contractor to plan with real confidence for developing his operations over that length of time.

However complex new air mail legislation may be, and however carefully it may be drawn to cover unexpected contingencies, such will still depend on administration. The economic power of the Postmaster General to create routes and extend them would still come under the Kelly bill. It is an open question whether that is not too broad a grant of power to be given to any one official of an executive department, especially where the award of contracts that extend over much more time than the life of one administration is involved. The next few months will offer a good opportunity for studying the desirability of creating a commission, of a more permanent and more purely judicial order than the Postmaster Generalship, to consider and decide upon the major features of the financial relationships between the government and its divided air transport operators. The determination of general policy is, of course, and will always remain in the hands of Congress.

Britannia

steps out

ONCE upon a time America used to specialize in holding astronomical world's records. That period now seems to belong to history. It might be a good idea to try to revive it.

There are three major records in aviation—speed, distance without stop, and altitude. Eighteen months ago two of them were located in America. Today Great Britain holds them all. That is greatly to the credit of the British aircraft industry, and incidentally to the British government, which paid the bills for two of the three records. It calls for warm congratulations to our British friends, and we cheerfully extend them. They have done a splendid job. But it also gives us occasion to do a little thinking on our own account.

TWO RAISE the world record for speed from 278 m.p.h. to 426 involved the efforts of several of the leading British aircraft and engine factories over a substantial part of a five-year period. It cost the British government a sum which must have been well in excess of one million dollars, together with another \$40,000 received from a private donor. As against that the American record has been pushed up to 296 m.p.h. through the efforts of three or four private factories of very small size and limited resources, in co-operation with one of the large engine builders and

using money provided on a distinctly modest scale by private syndicates. There has been no government encouragement of any sort, and none of the largest airplane manufacturers has shown any interest in the subject of record-breaking.

The British have just recognized the distance record. They have spent six years going after it, again at government expense, and again with equipment specially constructed by one of the largest of British manufacturers. The final success has been a flight of 5,341 miles, beating by only 7 per cent the figure established by Lockheed and P-40s in a slightly modified machine of straightforward commercial type, and with a total preparatory cash outlay considerably less than one-tenth of the amount expended by the British authorities.

A few years ago Great Britain won the altitude record back from the United States. On that occasion the venture was a private one, with the builder of the power plant that was used taking the leading part. In going to the expense of remodeling an airplane and making all the necessary special installations, the British company showed an initiative which has not been paralleled by any American manufacturer in the last three years. Presumably their interest was not purely altruistic, and did not proceed purely from sportsmanship. There is a real commercial advantage in record-holding, especially when foreign markets are to be secured. It might be well worth the while of some of the more powerful units in the American industry to organize for the attainment of important records, even though they had to do so entirely at their own expense.

WE HAVE never been in favor of racing with government support as a regular thing. The costs are high, and the benefits questionable. Nevertheless we believe that it would be well worth while under present conditions for the Army and Navy to take steps to ensure some of the leading records to American credit, leaving the manufacturers as free a hand as possible in the development of the record-breaking machines. There isn't the slightest doubt that American builders can produce products that will fly at least as fast, as high, and as low, as those of any other country. There is plenty of evidence of that already upon the books. All they need is an equal chance. We should like to see the government authorities offer an incentive by announcing their willingness to purchase at a reasonably substantial figure a few experimental machines which the manufacturers would guarantee to break specified records now held abroad. Some \$1,500,000 of the appropriations for experimental work could be very profitably expended in that way over the next few years. Given such a spur, we hope the American industry could be counted upon to respond, and to show confidence in its own products and willingness to take some risk upon its own account.

FLYING EQUIPMENT

Boring's new
Model 247 transport

BETWEEN the summer of 1914 and the late fall of 1938, the pendulum of progress in airplane design swung back and forth between the engineering office of the starting power. Improvements in detail or in performance were appreciated, scarcely had a superior fighting ship appeared over the line when some competitor and more potent model would take it off from the other side of the issue. In a somewhat similar fashion, the low-point of design in the United States during the post-War period has tended to oscillate between the commercial and the military, to the grave benefit of both. Ideas developed by designers for fighters and transports find reflection in subsequent fighters and bombers, and are later handed back to their originators for further commercial use, much better for experts to survey history. Some such cycle has recently been completed by Boeing Airplane Company, Clatsop's West Coast manufacturing neck.

In 1930 Boeing engineers broke definitely with the biplane tradition, and produced the then-radical Monomail. A year or so later when a high performance bomber was required by the Air Corps, the lessons learned from the production and intensive usage of the Monomail laid the foundation for the VJ-5A bomber. The performance of this ship was so successful that when General had done the specifications for 400 ultra-modern transports to replace combat-type in service, the army of the pendulum brought the design with the accommodation of military experience, back to the commercial side of the picture.

Although the new air there is smaller

in general form and overall dimensions to the VJ-5A, the design philosophy of its design is totally different. Speed, passenger comfort and economy in production, operation and maintenance were the primary considerations. Speed was inherent in the design (the ship rocks with the fastest commercial design here and there), but the other factors had to be built in from the beginning. There was no attempt, for example, to lay down the cross-sectional dimensions of the fuselage from a purely aerodynamic point of view, hoping that somehow, after the job was done, the busy suffering passenger would be able to find someplace to get his feet and so wedge in his personal belongings. Passenger requirements were the starting point. The average passenger was studied for length, weight and volume, and the cabin design flexibly took around him.

The 30-ft length of cabin has a headroom of 6 ft throughout. The chairs are arranged five on a side, with ample aisle between. Each is 20 in. wide between the arms and is spaced 40 in. apart. A large rectangular window is located by each seat. Reading lamps and head-mounted weathering and heat control devices are arranged for each passenger.

The position of the two engines on fuselage well forward of the leading edge of the wing, contributes greatly to the reduction of direct resistance. To develop control nose, often with center of the outside main skin, 1 in. in dead air space, a layer of felt, a sheet of plywood, and for interior finish a layer of felt fabric, as a soft inner layer has been found very important in reducing objectionable reflected sounds inside a cabin. (For full discussion of sound insulation in airplane cabins see page 146 this issue.)

The heating system is thermostatically controlled. A small heater

mounted around one of the engine exhausts, supplies heated liquid to radiators installed in the cabin air supply ducts. About 10,000 cu ft of hot air venting air can be taken in through scoops and circulated through two outlets in the cabin ceiling. In warm weather the boiler is automatically disconnected, and the system supplies cool air to the cabin, so that under normal conditions a temperature of about 70 deg. can be maintained. The cold air station by each window is independent of the cabin heating system, and can be controlled by passengers as desired. They are similar to those used on the present Boeing 307.

Compartments for pilot and co-pilot are reached through a door in the forward cabin bulkhead. The movement board is completely complete, and is fixed up with all the latest aids, to navigation developed on United and other lines. Three devices are installed to orient the pilot at the position of the retractable landing gear, (1) a gear position indicator, (2) a red bell's eye light on the instrument panel, and (3) a klaxon on the wall behind the seat. One significant feature of the instrument installation is the use of an engine-down pump for driving all vacuum-operated instruments in place of the customary vacuum. A certain amount of positive drive and the instant of retracted position are thereby eliminated.

Standard Western Electric two-way radio-telephone equipment is mounted forward of the pilot's cockpit just under the base of the radio antenna mast. A 50-watt set, and pit in the nose ahead of the radio compartment. Access to the pit and in the radio room is through a lower overhead hatch on the forward deck. Another 60-watt, big-die equipment is immediately aft of the cabin entrance, and is reached by the entrance through a door on the left-hand side of the fuselage. Since the door

for passengers is on the right-hand side of the fuselage, it is possible to load and unload express without interfering at all with the cabin entrance.

During the design and construction stages, frequent conferences among engineering, operating and maintenance personnel insured that all possible use to be made of accumulated experience in building into the new ship features which make for the utmost economy in use and upkeep. It has become generally necessary to mention, in describing modern transport designs, that adequate provision has been made for rapid and complete accessibility to all essential parts of the structure. The same may also be said of the use of bearing brigs and fittings at every possible point. All external detail parts have been absolutely treated before



At left: Stream-lining of fuselage (17) showing bulkheads and method of finished detail. Bottom: (18) under construction. Note how entrance of fuselage is in largest part of wing skin engine mount underwing assembly.

assembly, and practically every part of the structure, internal and external, can be reached in any case for maintenance. Since the current program involves the construction of 10 airplanes of this type, of which the first airplane is to be delivered by May 1, an extensive study of production and loading sections had to be made before the first ship could be started. Both speed and accuracy were necessary to produce the required number of interchangeable parts on schedule, and an extensive series of jigs and fixtures were designed and built. Every nut, wash or bulkhead, stringer, engine, mount, skin plating, window-frames, door etc., was manufactured over accounts furnished to very close dimensions. This method not only made for complete interchangeability, but effected tremendous savings in manufacturing time and cost, and therefore great economies in the cost of production.

The entire plane, with the exception of a small amount of Handley used in

the cabin insulation and in the flooring is of all-metal construction. The fuselage is a semi-monocoque type built entirely of duralumin, including principally of welded sheet metal bulkheads, members of a heavy channel section, skin stiffeners of channel, stringer, pipe elements and a smooth skin—the whole assembled by rivets. The frame was built in three sections over wooden forms. (1) a non-section (A)—the three-view drawings containing forward and pit, radio compartment, cockpit, and the forward portion of the cabin; (2) a center section (B), a short section of the cabin built integral with the wing web, and (3) the tail section (C) containing the balance of the cabin, the tail and baggage compartments, and the structural supports for stabilizer and fin. A non-piece (X) stands off the forward-end, and therefore from the fuselage, up the tail wheel assembly and fairing the under-portion of the fuselage. The most complicated fuselage element in



section B, for through it is transmitted all wing powerplants and landing loads. The engine mounts and the landing gear with its retracting mechanism are integral parts of this section, as indicated in the cross-sectioning plan view. It may be said that section B is the backbone of the entire ship.

The landing gear follows the main ground profile laid down for the original Monomail. One "Retracting Landing Gear," Richard M. Webb, Aviation, February, 1932) with the wheels fitted backward can maintain in the under-portion of the wing. About half the effective wheel diameter extends below the wing boundary when in the retracted position, so that it is possible to land without damage to the underbody of the airplane in the extreme



First of Boeing's new transport airplanes ready to go into service on United Air Lines.



Airplane Development's V-1 transport

GERARD VULTEE, for several years chief engineer of the Lockheed Aircraft Company, is responsible for the design of one of the latest American transports into the high-speed transport class, a nine-place, single-engine ship built by the Airplane Development Company of Glendale, California, organized subsidiary of the Civil Corporation because of its origin, the new machine will probably be converted into an American Army spot completion of tests by the Army's Branch of the U.S. Department of Commerce.

Externally, the ship is all the conventional low-wing monoplane pattern of this type, but beneath the conventional 1933 single-engine transport, it is all steel with a Wright Cyclone Model F-2 engine, and provides seating accommodations for eight passengers and a pilot. It carries fully equipped landing gear, a feature which has become (with one notable exception) almost standard for this type.

In structural detail Vultee's design exhibits a number of novel features. The fuselage, for example, a true monocoque type of modified elliptical construction, is made up entirely of carbon strips of flat Alclad sheets laid transversely over a system of U-section stringers. Each panel overlaps single-lap, and the one immediately behind it, and individual panels are relatively short in proportion to the total length of the fuselage, it has been considered as necessary to problem them. This feature has an important bearing on maintenance, for if it is necessary to replace a damaged fuselage in the field, any panel may be removed by merely detaching the cross stringers and attaching a template for cutting and drilling a new piece. Replacement is thus possible from the steel sheet by a



48-inch high-speed airplane designed by Gerard Vultee ready for test flight

metal-to-metal of means to drill without recourse to expensive jigs or fixtures to position the sheet so as to keep the tolerances in line.

Wings are all-alloy of the so-called "ditch" type, in which all leading and trailing edges are taken by the covering. The latter is of composite construction. For the upper surface an extra corrugated member runs the full length of the wing, joining the main structural members at the leading and trailing edges, and a smooth Alclad outer covering is attached over the corrugations.

The bottom covering is composed of flat sheets riveted by U-section stringers. The space at all three points, on construction built integral with the fuselage, and two outboard panels attached to the web by means of bolt-brass-wire sections in the bottom of each main section to the stringer for expansion and repair. The aluminum outer wing and service suit are suitably balanced when their hinges are open.

Tail surfaces are of the same general type as the wing. Both fin and stabilizer are usually built into the fuselage. Longitudinal ribs and rib-strips, square or rectangular in cross section, of narrow trailing edge flaps on the rudder and on the elevators. The rudder flap can be adjusted to the desired position by the elevator flap, or under the control of the pilot. In this respect the arrangement is similar to that used on the Douglas B-1, also described in this issue.

The wheel supports of the retracting landing gear are built up from sheet aluminum as a single complete assembly. The lower end consists of a clevis shock absorber and the necessary brake operating mechanism, and the upper end is based on a longitudinal strut which carries a section of wheel hub. Landing gear and lowering the gear is simply a matter of raising a screw engaged in the wheel, normally by means of an electric motor actuated by a switch in the cockpit, as is conventional, by hand. With the electric drive the action of the gear is quite rapid. Lowering the wheels requires about seven seconds, and retraction but very little time. The wheels and supports carry landing members which act automatically to open the wheel well and make a smooth surface of the bottom of the

wing when the gear is retracted. In emergency, wheel supports can be lowered out of the wheel recesses in the bottom of the wing stub to leave the back-up lights. When the gear is retracted the lights are completely covered up, and are undisturbed when the wheels are down. This arrangement can be seen in one of the accompanying photographs.

Although the pilot's compartment is the rear of the ship, appears wide enough to accommodate two men and fuel control, only the left-hand seat and controls are installed—the right-hand side of the cab being occupied by a 20 volt fuel compartment. Instruments have been grouped on passenger panel units individually detachable. The most novel type of control is a rudder, but the entire part of the wheel can be cut away, a feature found scarce frequently in European ship class, in our own. A hand-grip bellcrank operates the wheel from the passenger cabin. The fuselage outline, through the cabin is 62 in high and 36 in wide, making ample room for eight comfortable adults arranged four abreast and six abreast. A 12-in. x 16-in. A.D. of the cabin is reserved for a bathroom passenger.



Landing gear on Airplane Development Company Model V-1. Note construction of wheel supports, and of bottom of the landing field inside the wheel well

luggage compartment (30 cu ft.), and radio equipment.

The ship has shown a top speed of 245 miles an hour and cruise at about 195 miles an hour. The general specifications given by the manufacturer are as follows: Span 48 ft. 6 in., length overall 33 ft. 6 in., height overall 9 ft. 3 in., wing area (including elevator) 515 sq ft., altitude 30,000 ft., speed over 300 mph., altitude 32,500 ft., fuel 59 gal., radius 141 sq ft., weight empty 4,075 lb.; gross weight 7,250 lb.

Goodyear develops new Airwheel brakes

THE application of brakes to the low-pressure airplane wheel has been somewhat difficult, due primarily to the small size of the mounting hub. Mechanical-operated band type brakes show relatively low efficiency, and are subject to avoid maintenance troubles caused primarily by the fact that there is little provision for the dissipation of heat generated at the brake assembly. One case which considered the personal discomfort of the writer indicates mounting of the brakes which arise from this source. A heavy cable-type airplane was being used for practice take-offs and landings on a hot day at one of the large Texas airports. After half a dozen landings, and some great maneuvering (voluntarily started by someone out of the flock), the ship came to the taxi way, where it actually on fire and the other two had to back. Quick action on the part of the maintenance men prevented damage to the airplane, but two men, both of whom were a total loss. This was a case of severe and unusual abuse, but it proved to illustrate a case that happens to friction-generated heat caused up inside a tire which acts as a thermal blanket.

To eliminate just such difficulties, Goodyear engineers have completely redesigned the hubs for Airwheels. A hydraulically-operated band type brake has resulted, which differs materially from anything that has so far appeared for this purpose. Drawing heavily upon the lessons learned from years of development on auto automobile clutches, the designers have built the new device around a series of alternate solid and braided discs, the former splined to the fixed axle, and the latter to the rotating hub, with the braking power applied by compressing the discs, solely under hydraulic pressure. Oil pressure is supplied from a master operating cylinder attached to the brake pedal, to an actuator piston in the brake assembly, which tends to open the rotating discs against the stationary discs to create controlled friction and the resulting braking action. The new brake has no moving parts, the effective area of the outer band type,

and more important still, the frictional elements are positively cooled by the hub, which permits a high rate of heat dissipation and eliminates danger of burnout. The steel discs make also for ease of maintenance, as the entire brake assembly can be removed if necessary without disturbing the tire and hub. The oil bath pressure required for satisfactory operation is approximately 110 lb. about one fourth that required for the operation of hydraulically-operated band-type brakes. The overall weight of the new system compares favorably with other mechanically-operated installations, and application can easily be made to any airplane to replace any previously installed system.



Pratt & Whitney's Twin Wasp

Pratt & Whitney Twin-row Wasp

ACTIVE development of two-row radial engine by Pratt & Whitney Aircraft Company dates from the early part of 1925, when an intensive study was made of various engine arrangements with an eye toward increasing the horsepower of power-plant units over and above that of the single-row radial engine. In the fall of that year construction was started on a two-row engine of approximately 2,500 cfm. displacement with two banks of seven cylinders each, fitted with a 21° propeller reduction gear. Extensive block tests, followed by flight testing on a Boeing 400 indicated that the design was practical, and the field work was implemented by wind-tunnel testing on models to determine the relative drag of single and double-row arrangements.

The use of a large number of cylinders in small diameter reduces rubbing stresses, making it possible to operate at higher crank speeds with improvement in power output per cylinder. Reduced power output per cylinder also means less weight. Higher crank speeds make more

room of reduction gearing necessary, and research led to a choice of gear ratios which make possible high efficiencies with propellers of reasonable diameter and weight. Not only is propulsive efficiency improved, but lower tip speeds mean distinctly greater operating—both factors in line with modern air transport requirements.

By the end of 1930 it was decided that the 2,500-cfm. engine had large design margin sufficient indicated, to work out started on a 1,600-cfm. model, and later on a 3,500-cfm. engine. The results of these two models, the Twin Wasp Junior, was announced in a spring of 1932, and exhibited at the Detroit Aircraft Show. It was described in more detail on page 260, Aviation May, 1932. Announcement has just been made of the availability of the larger model, the Twin Wasp. The new engine carries A.T.C. 58 and 96 respectively.

With its displacement of 3,500 cfm in the Twin Wasp is rated 600 hp. at 2,400 r.p.m., an output which can be maintained up to 4,500 ft. by supercharging. Over a 300-hp. increase the average fuel consumption was 35 lb. per hp.-hr. with oil at 322 ft. per lb.-hr. With a dry weight of 1,125 lb. the specific weight is 1.36 lb. per ft. The propeller reduction gear ratio is 3:2. The overall diameter is 49 in. as against the 50 in. diameter of the standard Wasp.



Operating elements and assembly (including pump) of oil pump of new Wasp designed by Pratt & Whitney.

SERVICING SHORT CUTS

Coucor incorporates servicing short-cuts

IN DESCRIBING the new Cessna-Wright Coucor transport (page 56, AVIATION, February, 1951) mention is made of certain servicing features which were incorporated in the design as a result of experience gained from two years operation of older models on Eastern Air Transport. A few of the more striking are covered below; others will appear from time to time in these pages.

The mounting of storage batteries, always a troublesome problem, has been solved in an ingenious manner in the Coucor. Each of the two nacelles carries a special carrier for a standard 12-volt, 65 amp-hr. Radio battery in the underpart, accessible through a door in the bottom of the nacelle. As shown in the accompanying photograph, the battery rests on a sliding platform which—in reality the bottom of the battery container. Raising the platform upwards not only inserts the battery in the container, but automatically establishes the electrical contacts. The battery terminals are covered in shape and arrangement in engineering requirements built into the top of the box. A 40-lb. pressure is maintained at the contact surface, sufficient for a low resistance connection without necessitating the use of bolts, nuts, or flexible cable. One of the most important features of this arrangement is the fact that the battery is easily reached from the ground, and need not be hoisted as complicated or cranked through passag-

es or compartments. It is noted that but 45 seconds are required to make a complete battery change.

The problem of inspecting the interior of large wings has been cut in the Coucor by the installation of an unusually large number of slipper fasteners. A photograph shows in what exact the wings can be opened up by this means. Tail surfaces and certain parts of the fuselage are similarly treated. Altogether 125 Managel fasteners have been installed.

Extreme simplicity has been sought in the installation of engines and accessories. A clear compartment behind each engine is at least reached by removal of portions of the nacelle covering unless for any inspection and maintenance of engine installation. It is possible for a mechanic, working in this compartment, to remove any and without detaching or disarming other apparatus or fittings. All controls, piping, etc., are concentrated at the center of the space, leaving plenty of room around the edges in which to work. Pipe lines are marked with identifying bands so that they may be traced easily, and all electrical wiring passes through shielded metal conduit. Twenty junction boxes are provided for quick maintenance and inspection.

Trouble is sometimes encountered in older designs from lack of clearly marked points at which the weights of the nacelle may be carried on jacks. On the Coucor, eight jack pads have been provided one on each side of the fuselage below the mid-compartment, one under each wing, one under the tail assembly, and one on the fuselage near the tail. Two others are mounted on the underpart of the engine nacelles.

The jacking points on each side is arranged so that a jacking wheel may be lifted free of the ground for tire replacement or brake adjustment without difficulty, even if the tire is due to begin with. Landing gear and tail wheel assemblies are provided with numerous Zerk fittings for quick lubrication.

The instrument board, so complicated in its function as to be with latest S. A. T. gauges, has been cleverly mounted to eliminate harmful vibration effects. Each section may be removed for maintenance without disturbing adjacent parts. The engine compartment, mounted in the cockpit behind the pilot's seat, is also quickly removable in a seat. It is claimed that it can be replaced in less than 10 minutes, thus making a complete change possible during refueling, or while loading passengers.



Left: Storage battery installation on underside of engine nacelle in the new Cessna Coucor. The battery can be easily reached by a man standing on the ground. Note the locking device. Above: A few of the inspection openings along the wings of the new Cessna Coucor.



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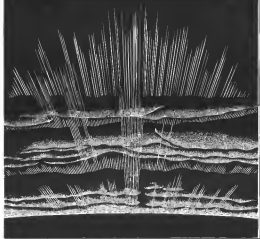
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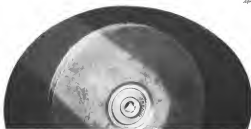
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Bendix Wheels and Brakes for airplanes and the new Bendix Pneumatic Shock Strut are examples

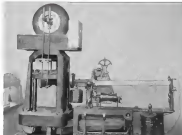
of how vast resources, high spirit of craftsmanship, and far-sighted vision may all be inspired by a single idea—a determination to produce "the best."

And typically Bendix is the development of a special and exclusive machinery used in their manufacturing, contributing to superior quality and lower costs.

The services of Bendix' corps of competent engineers are always available for consultation.



The pioneer product of their kind, and standing today as always for preeminence in quality, Bendix roller bearings. Wheels are the standard type for military and civilian planes. Permanently improved bearings, exact concentricity of hubs and drums, reduced take-off run, ease of handling and improved ground handling are obvious advantages.



Radial Load Test—Bendix wheels of new design are subjected to static radial load test as shown above. The test seals on soft earth to simulate ground conditions. The maximum radial wheel load applied during this test is approximately two times the normal static weight which the wheel will have to support in service.

As the load is increased and the two defects and settles in the earth, the operator carefully watches the wheel for any signs of failure. An indicator is so placed in the wheel that it measures the slightest distortion of the brake drum with respect to the axle. Only a very small amount of distortion is allowed because, for maximum brake efficiency in service, the drum must run true with the axle while operating under severest landing and taxiing load conditions.

This illustrates the care with which every detail is checked so as to insure the very highest possible degree of safety to those who fly in airplanes equipped with Bendix Wheels and Brakes.



Another Bendix contribution to comfort and safety—the Bendix Pneumatic Shock Strut. Impact loads absorbed by air flow and air compression above the oil-tight loads by air compression in the bounds definitely controlled by rubber.

BENDIX BRAKE COMPANY · South Bend, Indiana
(SUBSIDIARY OF BENDIX AVIATION CORPORATION)



Hand Inertia Starters • Electric Inertia Starters • Direct Cranking Electric Starters
 • Hand Turning Gears • Air Injection Starters • Battery Charging Generators
 (voltage regulated) • Double Voltage Radio Generators (voltage regulated) •
 Radio Dynamators • Engine Driven Radio Dynamators (voltage regulated) •
 Engine Driven Alternators (constant speed) • Engine Driven Vacuum Pumps
 (for navigating instruments) • Automatic Supercharger Regulators • Battery
 Booster Coils • Booster Magnets • Fuel Flowmeters • Superchargers • Automatic
 Pitch Propeller Hubs • Ice Overshoe Air Pumps • Flexible Metallic Tubing.

Detailed data gladly supplied upon request

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